

Extremely Reduced Levels of Heterozygosity in the Vertebrate Pathogen *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*

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The genomes of microsporidia in the genus *Encephalitozoon* have been extensively studied for their minimalistic features, but they have seldom been used to investigate basic characteristics of the biology of these organisms, such as their ploidy or their mode of reproduction. In the present study, we aimed to tackle this issue by mapping Illumina sequence reads against the genomes of four strains of *E. cuniculi*. This approach, combined with more conventional molecular biology techniques, resulted in the identification of heterozygosity in all strains investigated, a typical signature of a diploid nuclear state. In sharp contrast with similar studies recently performed on a distant microsporidian lineage (*Nematocida* spp.), the level of heterozygosity that we identified across the *E. cuniculi* genomes was found to be extremely low. This reductive intraindividual genetic variation could result from the long-term propagation of these strains under laboratory conditions, but we propose that it could also reflect an intrinsic capacity of these vertebrate pathogens to self-reproduce.

Microsporidia are a medically and economically important group of obligate intracellular parasites that are known to infect a wide array of hosts, including protists, invertebrates, humans, and many other vertebrates. The cells of these eukaryotic organisms are atypical in that they lack conventional mitochondria and a Golgi apparatus and harbor prokaryote-like rRNA molecules (1). For some time, these simple cellular features were thought to reflect the primitive nature of microsporidian cells (2), but all recent phylogenetic studies now strongly support the association of microsporidia with the fungal kingdom, with current scientific disputes focusing on their exact phylogenetic placement within the kingdom itself (i.e., earliest branch versus more-derived lineage) (3–7).

Besides their intriguing evolutionary origin, microsporidia have drawn scientific attention for their reductive genome features. Specifically, their obligate intracellular parasitic lifestyle has resulted in dramatic gene losses in the biochemical repertoires of all known species, making them ideal models to study the processes involved in genome adaptation to obligate intracellular parasitism (8–12). The most compelling examples of genome reduction in microsporidia are known from species in the genus *Encephalitozoon*, where gene losses have been paralleled by a massive compression of the genomes themselves (13). To date, complete genomes from four species in the genus *Encephalitozoon* have been sequenced (*Encephalitozoon cuniculi*, *E. intestinalis*, *E. hellem*, and *E. romaleae*) (11–13), all of which have been found to be strikingly small and very similar in size, form, and content, carrying approximately 1,900 genes with a limited metabolic capacity. The few differences between these four genomes are notable, however, and include a significant variability in the number of genes acquired by means of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (11, 14, 15).

To date, the acquisition of genome data from several *Encephalitozoon* spp. has helped us understand how these intracellular parasites have managed to offset their reduced metabolism and ultimately have benefited more efficiently from their hosts. However, this sequence information could have been better exploited

to comprehend other aspects of their biology that are still poorly understood but vital for their survival and propagation, including their mode of reproduction or the ploidy of their nuclei (16, 17). In particular, claims of sexual reproduction in *Encephalitozoon* spp. have so far been based only on the presence of sexually related genomic regions (i.e., meiosis genes and the sex-related locus) (12, 18–20), and the presence of a diploid state for their nuclei has been inferred only from limited and unrelated observations (e.g., one heterozygous allele in *E. cuniculi*, and potential homologous chromosomes detected by pulse gel electrophoresis) (12, 18–20).

Here, we confirm the presence of a diploid state and the potential for sexual reproduction in the vertebrate pathogen *Encephalitozoon cuniculi* by identifying the presence of heterozygosity along the resequenced genomes of four strains of this species. Similar investigations recently performed on distant microsporidian relatives with small genomes (*Nematocida* spp.) have resulted in the identification of extensive heterozygosity (3), a typical hallmark of diploidy that also suggests the presence of sex (3, 21, 22). However, it remains to be seen if diploidy and elevated heterozygosity are genetic features that are also present in more-derived members of the group.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Genome acquisition, sequence analysis, and polymorphism detection. Strains of *E. cuniculi* are generally classified within three genotypes based on the number of “GTTT” repeats found within the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) of their RNA operon (23). In the present paper, these isolates

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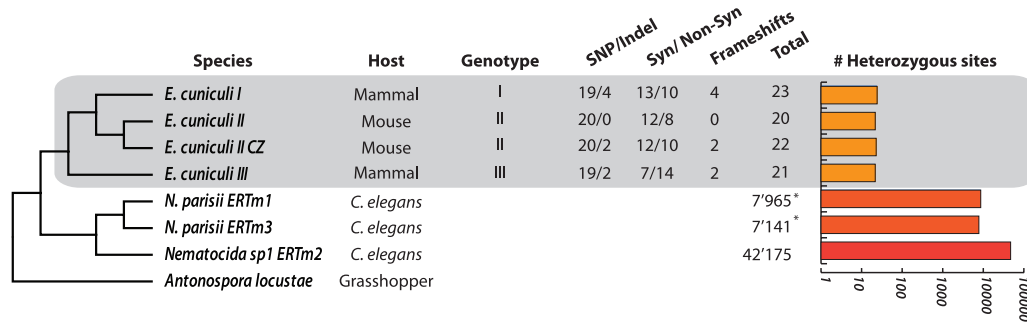


FIG 1 Amount, location, and nature of heterozygous loci in *E. cuniculi* and comparison with *Nematocida*. (A) Phylogenetic reconstruction of the studied microsporidian species based on the nucleotide sequences of the actin and alpha-tubulin genes. Known genotype, parasite's host, amount of variation, and nature of variation are indicated. SNPs and indels are included in the count of (non)synonymous mutations. *Antonospora locustae* was used as an outgroup. The total number of heterozygous sites is presented in a bar graph on a logarithmic (\log_{10}) scale. An asterisk indicates that variation was found using 454 sequencing. The *Encephalitozoon* genus is highlighted by a gray square. A detailed list of heterozygous loci is shown in Table 1.

are designated ECI (rabbit isolate, ATCC 50503 [24]), ECII (mouse isolate [25]), and ECIII (canine isolate, ATCC 50502 [26]). One-hundred-base-pair Illumina sequence reads from representatives of these genotypes have been mapped against their respective reference genomes to identify the presence of intraindividual genetic variation. In total, 7,805,454, 1,898,812, and 13,704,622 reads were found to map against the reference genomes of ECI, ECII, and ECIII, respectively. Three of these Illumina read sets have been obtained from the NCBI SRA database (accession numbers SRX002289, SRX002287, SRX002285; sequenced at the Broad Institute), and mapped against their respective reference genomes available from <http://microsporidiadb.org/micro/> (27, 28) and NCBI (ECI, AEWD01; ECII, AEWQ01; and ECIII, AEW01). Genome assembly procedures for the ECI, ECII, and ECIII strains are provided in an accompanying article (28). In parallel, reads were also newly obtained from one *E. cuniculi* strain of genotype II isolated from Czech Republic (referred to here as ECII-CZ) (29).

The mapping procedure was performed as follows. Low-quality reads were either removed or trimmed prior to alignment in order to eliminate biases induced by sequencing errors. Variation was subsequently searched using the "Find Variations/SNPs" function available in the Geneious software package. Heterozygosity was scored in all cases where reference and alternate alleles were found to map to one genomic region at a similar frequency (between 35% and 65% respective frequency; n loci = 89). All these heterozygous loci were verified using PCR, followed by direct Sanger sequencing of the resulting products and manual inspection of the sequencing chromatograms (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). We found that heterozygous loci located within highly covered regions (i.e., within the 35/65% cutoff but within regions with coverage twice as large as the average coverage of the genome) all represented false positives following PCR and direct Sanger sequencing (i.e., variation was due to paralogy rather than allelic variation). For this reason, these highly covered genome regions, which typically include the subtelomeres of *Encephalitozoon* spp. and the rRNA operons of these strains, were discarded for downstream analyses (i.e., no evidence of heterozygosity *in vitro*; 23 loci tested [data not shown]). Finally, variation that deviated from the 35/65% cutoff *in silico* was always found to be the result of sequencing or assembly errors following PCR and Sanger sequencing (no evidence of heterozygosity both *in silico* and *in vitro*; 14 loci tested) (data not shown).

PCRs were performed in 25 μ l containing a final concentration of 1 \times EconoTaq DNA polymerase (Lucigen, Middleton, WI), 0.5 mM each primer, and 0.3 μ l of DNA. The thermal cycling conditions included an initial step of 94°C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 55°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 2 min and final step of 72°C for 12 min.

ECII-CZ genome acquisition and annotation. Spores from one strain of *E. cuniculi* isolated from a wild mouse in the Czech Republic (29) were grown in the Vero E6 cell line, and the resulting spores were subjected to

deep sequencing to further confirm the presence of reduced heterozygosity in *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*. The strain belongs to genotype II, as suggested by a specific tandem repeat present in its internal transcribed spacer (23), and is referred in the present paper as ECII-CZ. Both strains of genotype II investigated in the present study (i.e., ECII and ECII-CZ) were originally isolated from mice within a close geographical region in the Czech Republic (25, 29), and our genome analyses confirmed that both isolates indeed represent two very closely related strains of the same genotype. However, the exact time at which ECII-CZ was isolated and the overall history of its propagation under laboratory environment are currently unknown (29). For these reasons, we will refrain from speculating about the evolutionary relationship between ECII and ECII-CZ and will exclusively use their genome sequences to confirm the methodology that we have used to detect heterozygous sites (i.e., the same methodology used on two independently acquired genomes of one genotype leads to very similar results).

Genomic DNA was extracted from ECII-CZ spores, and deep-sequencing shotgun libraries were prepared as previously described (13). The ECII-CZ library was subjected to one round of deep sequencing using 1/10th of a channel on the Illumina GA-IIx instrument, resulting in 331,449,750 bp of unique DNA sequence (50-bp-long sequence reads). Reads were assembled using the reassembly tool available in the Geneious package and the ECII genome as a reference (AEWQ0100000), resulting in 54 scaffolds, with an average size of 13,355 bp and an average coverage of 46 \times . A total of 2,224,725 reads were mapped against this newly acquired genome sequence using the same procedure described above for other strains. The ECII-CZ reference genome was annotated as previously described (13).

Accession numbers. The Illumina reads for ECII-CZ have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database under accession number SRA059442. The scaffolds have been deposited in GenBank under accession numbers KC513604 to KC513657.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Identification of low levels of heterozygosity in four genetically different strains of *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*. Aligning Illumina reads against the reference genomes of ECI, ECII, and ECIII resulted in the detection of a total of 66 regions that were mapped by both reference and alternate reads at similar frequency (i.e., within the expected threshold). The amount of heterozygosity identified is far lower than that recently reported for distant microsporidia (Fig. 1; Table 1) (3), with a maximum of 23 nucleotide sites (less than 0.00001% of the total genome sequence) being affected by heterozygosity in *E. cuniculi*, compared to over 42,175 (1.035% of the complete genome) for more basal species such as *Nematocida* spp. (Fig. 1) (3). In all cases, heterozygous loci were confirmed

TABLE 1 Heterozygous loci in *E. cuniculi* genotypes I, II, and III

Genotype	Gene	Product	Polymorphism type	Protein effect	Nucleotide change	Amino acid change	Position in coding sequence	
I	ECU02_0050	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transversion)	None	C/A		1738	
	ECU02_0050	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	G/A	R → W	1736	
	ECU02_0260	GATA zinc finger transcription factor 3	SNP (transition)	Truncation	C/T		60	
	ECU02_0720	Histone H2A	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		221	
	ECU05_1190	Belongs to the ABC transporter superfamily	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		381	
	ECU06_0470	Nuclear pore complex protein nup155	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		2656	
	Intergenic_ch6			SNP (transversion)		A/C		
	ECU06_0590	Hypothetical protein	Indel	Frameshift	C/-		655	
	ECU06_0700	Hypothetical protein	Indel	Frameshift	CC/-		429	
	ECU06_0730	Ribonucleoside diphosphate reductase small chain	SNP (transition)	None	G/A		719	
	ECU06_0830	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	C/A	M → I	1711	
	ECU07_1005	60S ribosomal protein l37a	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		252	
	ECU11_1160	Possible protein of nuclear scaffold	SNP (transition)	None	C/T		609	
	ECU11_1330.6	Transcription factor (forkhead domain)	Indel	Frameshift	A/-		692	
	ECU11_1330.1	Transcription factor (forkhead domain)	SNP (transition)	None	G/A		511	
	ECU11_1330.2	Transcription factor (forkhead domain)	SNP (transition)	None	T/C		457	
	ECU11_1330.2	Transcription factor (forkhead domain)	SNP (transition)	Substitution	C/T	D → N	452	
	ECU11_1330.3	Transcription factor (forkhead domain)	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		368	
	ECU11_1330.4	Transcription factor (forkhead domain)	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		232	
	ECU11_1330.5	Transcription factor (forkhead domain)	SNP (transition)	Substitution	C/T	A → T	108	
	Intergenic_ch11			SNP (transition)		C/T		
	ECU11_1340	ABC transporter-like protein	Indel	Frameshift	-/A		1890	
	ECU11_1340	ABC transporter-like protein	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	T/A	I → F	1020	
	II	ECU04_0440	Metal-dependent protease of the Pad1 Jab1	SNP (transition)	None	T/C		908
		ECU05_0720	Splicing factor U2AF large subunit b	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A/G	R → C	1012
		ECU06_0700	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	None	C/T		413
ECU07_0680		Chromosome segregation ATPase	SNP (transition)	None	G/A		564	
ECU07_0770		Npl4 family protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A/G	H → Y	433	
ECU07_1490		Copper amine oxidase N-terminal domain protein	SNP (transition)	None	C/T		267	
ECU07_1500		Calcium-transporting ATPase	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		1857	
ECU08_0080		Dihydrofolate reductase	Indel	Frameshift	T/-		94	
ECU08_0230		Cell division protein kinase	SNP (transition)	None	T/C		186	
ECU08_1010		Proteophosphoglycan Ppg4	SNP (transition)	Substitution	G/A	I → M	768	
ECU08_1730		Hypothetical protein	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	T/G	H → N	241	
ECU09_0360		Similarity to hypothetical proteins (Upf0129 family)	SNP (transversion)	None	A/C		272	
ECU09_0410		DNA excision repair protein Ercc-6	SNP (transition)	Substitution	C/T	F → L	1417	
ECU09_0730		Bem46 family protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A/G	G → D	738	
ECU09_1120		Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	None	C/T		35	
ECU09_1820		snRNP-like protein	Indel	Frameshift	G/-		149	
ECU10_1210		DNA polymerase catalytic subunit a	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A/G	S → F	857	
ECU11_0410		Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	C/T	N → S	461	
Intergenic_ch11				SNP (transition)		C/T		
Intergenic_ch8.1				SNP (transition)		G/A		
Intergenic_ch8.2			SNP (transversion)		T/C			
Intergenic_ch10			SNP (transition)		A/G			
III	ECU01_0410	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A/G	R → G	674	
	ECU01_0750	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	T/C	F → S	333	
	ECU03_0320	60S ribosomal protein l13	SNP (transition)	None	C/T		264	
	ECU03_1180	Subtilisin-related endopeptidase K	SNP (transition)	Substitution	G/A	P → S	1109	
	ECU04_0470	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	None	A/G		754	
	ECU04_1460	Cyclin b-like guanine nucleotide binding protein	Indel	Frameshift	T/-		2100	
	ECU04_1470	Na ⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter	SNP (transversion)	None	T/G		1073	
	ECU04_1490	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	C/A	D → Y	1237	
	ECU05_0700	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	G/A	G → R	762	
	ECU05_0850	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	C/T	G → S	41	
	Intergenic_ch7.1			SNP (transition)		T/C		
	Intergenic_ch7.2			SNP (transition)		A/G		

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Genotype	Gene	Product	Polymorphism type	Protein effect	Nucleotide change	Amino acid change	Position in coding sequence
	ECU08_1150	Hypothetical oxidoreductase short-chain dehydrogenases/reductases (SDR) family	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	T/G	W → G	549
	ECU08_1680	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A/G	E → G	597
	ECU10_0540	Similarity to ADP/ATP carrier protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	C/T	R → K	5
	ECU10_0960	Similarity to hypothetical proteins Ycd7_human	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A/G	S → P	68
	ECU10_1030	Hypothetical protein	Indel	Frameshift	G/-		1938
	ECU11_1120	Translation elongation factor 2	SNP (transition)	Substitution	G/A	V → M	433
	ECU11_1410	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	None	T/C		632
	Intergenic_ch11		SNP (transversion)		G/T		
	ECU06_0630	Hypothetical protein	SNP (transition)	Substitution	G/A	C → Y	1472

using PCR and direct Sanger sequencing, with the resulting chromatograms showing the presence of double peaks of similar intensity irrespective of the genotype (Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). Additional confirmation of the presence of reduced heterozygosity in these strains was also obtained by mapping reads onto the genome sequence from a second strain of genotype II (ECII-CZ) that we sequenced independently. Specifically, ECII and ECII-CZ were found to differ by only 9 homozygous substitutions (Fig. 1; Table 2) but were otherwise found to harbor an almost identical pattern of heterozygosity (ECII-CZ has two heterozygous indels that are absent in ECII) (Tables 1 and 2). Given the elevated divergence that is generally present between strains of *E. cuniculi* (28), the great sequence similarity between ECII and ECII-CZ suggests that they represent two very closely related strains.

On average, about 86% of the total heterozygous variation was found to affect coding regions of the genome, possibly because of the elevated gene density of these genomes (i.e., an average density of approximately 0.9 gene per kb [12]). Between 22% and 57% of substitutions resulted in an amino acid change at one allele, affecting a total of 31 genes with known function and 19 genes encoding hypothetical proteins (Table 1). Several heterozygous deletion and insertions events (indels) were also identified, all of which were found to affect coding regions. In total, 9 genes were found to have undergone pseudogenization at one allele, with ECI showing the largest number of heterozygous frameshift mutations (Fig. 1; Table 1). The slightly more elevated heterozygosity of ECI mirrors an unusually large number of substitutions at the locus ECU11_1130 ($n = 7$), which encodes a transcription factor. While it is intriguing to speculate about a potential for this gene to rep-

resent a mating type locus in *E. cuniculi* (i.e., allelic variation within transcription factors is linked with sexual identity in other fungi [30–32]), it seems that the elevated number of mutations in this particular case results from the pseudogenization of one allele (i.e., relaxation of selective pressures at one allele).

Intriguingly, all strains investigated harbor similarly low levels of heterozygosity, but this genetic variation was always found to affect different portions of the proteome among genotypes. Finally, sequence coverage was never found to vary among different chromosomes in all genotypes, suggesting the absence of aneuploidy in all strains of this species.

Strains of *Encephalitozoon* are likely to be diploid. Species in the genus *Encephalitozoon* have been proposed to be diploid on a few occasions, most notably following observations of potential homologous chromosomes using hybridization procedures (18–20) and reports of potential heterozygosity at one specific locus (reported for the CTP synthase but data not shown [12]). However, these reports have long remained speculative, warranting further explorations across available genomes of these pathogens.

By identifying the presence of several heterozygous loci across the genomes of four genetically divergent strains of *E. cuniculi*, the present study fills an important gap in our understanding of the cellular biology of these vertebrate-infecting parasites. In particular, the identification of heterozygosity in all strains analyzed strongly supports the notion that members of this lineage are diploid, harboring pairs of homologous chromosomes that almost certainly help these obligate intracellular parasites offset the deleterious mutational load harbored by their nuclei. Specifically, an average of 3 heterozygous loci per genome were found to harbor one allele with frameshift mutations, so having one functional

TABLE 2 Substitution variation between two independent isolates of *E. cuniculi* genotype II, ECII and ECII-CZ

Gene	Product	Protein ID	Polymorphism type	Protein effect	Nucleotide change (CZ → II)	Amino acid change
Intergenic-CH1			SNP (transversion)		G → C	
ECU02_0080	Hypothetical protein	CAD25039.1	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	T → A	R → S
ECU02_0080	Hypothetical protein	CAD25039.1	SNP (transition)	Substitution	A → G	F → L
ECU02_0650	Hypothetical protein	CAD25095.1	SNP (transition)	Substitution	T → C	D → G
ECU03_0450	Hypothetical protein	CAD26191.1	SNP (transition)	None	C → T	
ECU03_0710	60S ribosomal protein L34	CAD26217.1	SNP (transversion)	None	T → A	
ECU08_1210	Hypothetical protein	CAD26427.1	SNP (transition)	Substitution	G → A	S → N
ECU08_2120	Hypothetical protein	CAD26514.1	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	T → A	I → N
ECU08_2120	Hypothetical protein	CAD26514.1	SNP (transversion)	Substitution	C → A	L → I

allele at these loci (i.e., resulting from diploidy) was certainly essential for the survival of these parasites with ultrareduced genome contents.

The presence of two sets of chromosomes per nucleus may also have additional beneficial effects for *E. cuniculi*, particularly within natural populations of these parasites, as diploidy has been linked with the capacity of some vertebrate parasites to escape the immune system of their host (33). This speculative hypothesis, however, is not currently supported by our data, as most heterozygous loci did not appear to encode proteins known to be involved in such evading mechanisms (Tables 1 and 2). Certainly, future analyses based on natural populations of *E. cuniculi* will be a key to understand whether the presence of heterozygosity is relevant for epidemiological studies of these important pathogens of vertebrates.

Opportunistic sex in *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*? Recently, mapping of Illumina reads against the genomes of different *Nematocida* strains (a basal microsporidian lineage that is evolutionarily very distant from *Encephalitozoon* spp.) has resulted in the identification of extremely high levels of heterozygosity. Such elevated levels typically result from the combination of a diploid nuclear state, frequent recombinational events (i.e., genetic variation resulting from meiosis), and genetic exchange. These are hallmarks of sexual reproduction in eukaryotes, and their identification in *Nematocida* spp. has been obviously linked with the presence of sexuality in those species (3).

Here, we propose that sexual reproduction may also occur in the more divergent microsporidian species *E. cuniculi*, for two main reasons. First, regardless of its frequency, the presence of heterozygosity represents compelling evidence for a diploid nuclear state in *E. cuniculi* and an essential prerequisite for the production of haploid cells through meiosis. This mechanism could allow *E. cuniculi* to complete a sexual cycle similar to those found in many other eukaryotes (Fig. 2A and B) or other diploid fungi (e.g., *Candida albicans*) (Fig. 2C) (3, 21, 22). Second, the low levels of heterozygosity that we have identified in *E. cuniculi* do not typically mirror the absence of sexual reproduction, because exclusively clonal diploids are expected to harbor many, highly divergent alleles in the absence of a mechanism that allows gene shuffling (i.e., meiosis) (22, 34–39). For this reason, the over 1,500-fold difference in the level of heterozygosity between strains of *E. cuniculi* and *Nematocida* spp. cannot be simply explained by the presence of different modes of reproduction in those lineages (i.e., exclusively clonal versus exclusively sexual).

So where are these sharp differences in heterozygosity between the two lineages coming from? One possibility is that the extremely low heterozygosity found in *E. cuniculi* is the result of self-reproduction (selfing), a mechanism that is known to heavily reduce the amount of heterozygosity in many other vertebrate parasites (22, 34, 35, 40) and to produce clones that are optimally adapted to certain hosts (i.e., highly homozygous individuals) but that can still maintain the capacity to undergo outcrossing and create new variation following rare changes in environmental conditions (i.e., opportunistic sexuals). However, given the source of the *E. cuniculi* strains we have analyzed, the extreme reduction in heterozygosity we have observed may have been exacerbated by the methodology used to originate and propagate these strains under laboratory conditions. Specifically, if those strains originated from few individuals, then founder effects combined with selfing or inbreeding

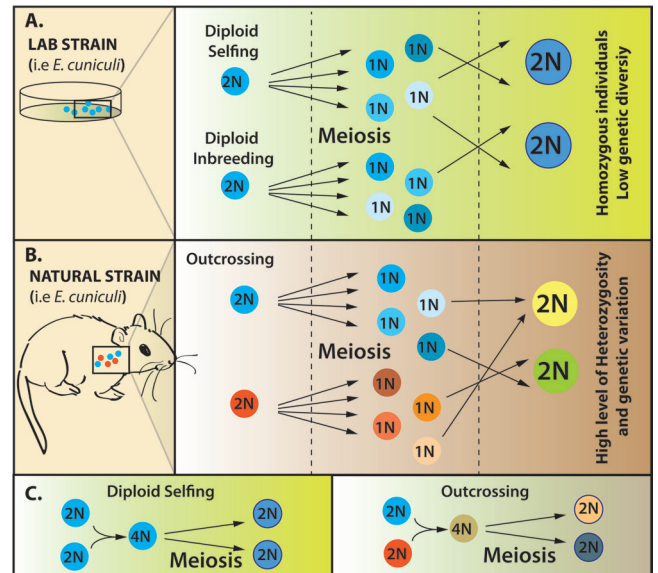


FIG 2 Selfing, inbreeding, and outcrossing in *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*. (A) Proposed modes of reproduction and mating systems present within laboratory strains of *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*. (B) Hypothesis regarding the modes of reproduction and mating systems present within natural populations of *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*. (C) Same mechanisms shown in panels A and B but involving the fusion of two diploid mating type cells to increase ploidy, followed by meiosis to generate the progeny.

(e.g., fusion of haploid cells produced by one individual or by genetically similar individuals) would quickly eradicate most genetic variation from those cultures, resulting in the highly homozygous individuals that we studied here (Fig. 2).

E. cuniculi could also possibly be clonal and yet find a way to produce genetic variation by a number of different mechanisms that are rarely observed, including the “asexual ploidy cycle” that is found in some amoebozoans and radiolarians (41) or through frequent mitotic recombination. In the asexual ploidy cycle, the ploidy level is increased by endomitosis (i.e., replication without cellular division) and subsequently reduced through cell divisions. This alternation of ploidy levels ($2N \rightarrow 4N \rightarrow 2N$ in this case) could mirror a sexual cycle without necessitating the fusion of gametes.

In any case, a number of additional studies are still required to determine whether selfing represents the major cause of reduced heterozygosity in *E. cuniculi* and whether gene exchange between genetically different members of one species can actually occur in the field. One such experiment could involve coinfection of the same host cells with different genotypes (coinfection with ECI and ECII or with ECI and ECIII), followed by genomic analysis of the resulting spores after a number of generations in search of gene exchanges. Certainly, the results from such analyses would provide important clues about the sexual mechanisms that are used by these organisms to produce genetic variation in the first place (i.e., frequent versus rare sex).

Similarly, investigations of heterozygosity and presence of recombination along the genomes of *E. cuniculi* strains isolated from the field (i.e., natural populations) will be essential to determine whether selfing is common in these vertebrate pathogens or whether it is simply a side effect of their long-term propagation under laboratory conditions. In particular, the identification of an

elevated number of heterozygous sites within natural populations of this species would be more in line with what was recently observed within natural strains of other species such as *Nematocida* spp. (3) and would suggest the capacity of *E. cuniculi* to outcross on a more regular basis in the field. Studying natural populations of *E. cuniculi* could also provide insights into the apparent genetic disparity that is found within and among genotypes of this species. Specifically, the ECI, ECII, and ECIII genomes have been recently found to diverge quite extensively at the sequence level (i.e., elevated homozygous divergence between individuals) (28) while being simultaneously able to maintain very reduced intragenomic diversity. The absence of shared heterozygosity between ECI, ECII, and ECIII certainly supports the notion that these strains are quite diverged and unlikely to have experienced genetic exchange between each other for quite some time. It now remains to be seen whether selfing has allowed these strains to accumulate a large amount of homozygous divergence without leaving many traces of heterozygosity behind.

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